




Sustainable Development Goals Monitoring and Forecasting Using Time Series Analysis

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Keywords: Time series causality, Missing values, Hierarchical classification, Time series forecasting, sustainable development goals.

Abstract: A framework for UN Sustainability for Development Goal (SDG) attainment prediction is presented, the SDG Track, Trace & Forecast (SDG-TTF) framework. Unlike previous SDG attainment frameworks, SDG-TTF takes into account the potential for causal relationship between SDG indicators both with respect to the geographic entity under consideration (intra-entity), and neighbouring geographic entities to the current entity (inter-entity). The challenge is in the discovery of such causal relationships. Six alternatives mechanisms are considered. The identified relationships are used to build multivariate time series prediction models which feed into a bottom-up SDG prediction taxonomy, which in turn is used to make SDG attainment predictions. The framework is fully described and evaluated. The evaluation demonstrates that the SDG-TTF framework is able to produce better predictions than alternative models which do not take into consideration the potential for intra and inter- causal relationships.


1 Introduction


Time series forecasting is a significant task undertaken within the context of many application domains such as budget planning (Deschamps, 2004), weather forecasting (Qing and Niu,). The fundamental building block of time series forecasting is to use the time series past lags to predict single or multiple time steps ahead (Jason, 2018). The complexity of time series analysis increases in the presence of short time series, the number of missing values, and unevenly distributed time series. This paper examines the application of time series analysis to Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) (UN, 2015) attainment forecasting, progress tracking and tracing. The challenges can be summarised as follows: (i) the short time series to be utilised (maximum of 20 observations); (ii) the noisy nature of the data, which also features a lot of missing values, and which therefore needs an intensive amount of preprocessing and interpolation, (iii) the hierarchical nature of the data (geographical location → goal → target → indicator → ...), (iv) the lack


of specific attainment values (thresholds) and (v) the computational complexity of causal inference in the context of the short SDG time series data.

In (Alharbi et al., 2019) an SDG prediction framework, the SDG Attainment Prediction (SDG-AP) framework, was presented to answer basic questions regarding SDG attainment, such as “will geographical entity x reach its SDG goals by 2030?”. The model assumed that each time series was independent of every other time series; that there was no intra-entity relationship between SDG time series within the same geographic entity (region, country), and no inter-regional relationship between SDG time series across entities (regions, countries). Each time series was considered in a univariate manner. The prediction model was founded on a bottom-up hierarchical taxonomy and classification framework; a framework incorporated into subsequent work.

In (Alharbi et al., 2020), an alternative framework was presented, the SDG Correlated Attainment Prediction (SDG-CAP) framework. The framework was founded on the same hierarchical framework as used in (Alharbi et al., 2019), but took into consideration the intra-entity relationship between the various SDG time series in a single geographic entity; the pos-

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sibility that there might be inter-entity relationships between the SDG time series in neighbouring geographic entities was not considered. A multivariate time series analysis approach was adopted. To identify relationships between time series within a single geographic entity five different “filtration” mechanisms (causal relationship discovery mechanisms) were considered. It was found that by combining the results of all five filtration mechanisms, referred to as the ACA mechanism after the authors, a best performance was achieved, out-performing SDG-AP.

In this paper we present the SDG Multivariate Track, Trace and Forecast (SDG-TTF) framework that takes into consideration both intra-entity relationships and inter-geographic region causalities between SDGs. The proposed SDG-TTF model incorporates the hierarchical framework from (Alharbi et al., 2019), and the ACA causality relationship mechanism from (Alharbi et al., 2020) for intra- and inter-entity relationship discovery. The proposed SDG-TTF framework enhances forecasting effectiveness compared to previous approaches.

The rest of this paper is organised as follows. In the following section, Section 2, a brief literature review of relevant work underpinning the work presented in this paper is given. The SDG application domain and the SDG time series data set is described in Section 3. The required preparation of the SDG data is then considered in Section 4. The proposed SDG-TTF approach is described in Section 5 and its evaluation in Section 6. A case study describing the System operation is given in Section 7. The paper concludes with a summary of the main findings, and a number of proposed directions for future research, in Section 8.

2 Literature Review

The proposed SDG-TTF approach addresses two fundamental challenges: (i) short time series forecasting and (ii) time series causal inference. Previous work in these two areas is therefore considered in the first two sub-sections in this literature review. The literature review is completed with some discussion of previous work directed at SDG forecasting.

2.1 Short time series forecasting

Short time series forecasting is challenging because it is difficult to perform meaningful out of sample evaluation, or cross validation, given the low number of observations (Hyndman and Kostenko, 2007). From the literature a range of methods have been proposed to address this issue, see for example (De Gooijer and Hyndman, 2006). However, these proposed solutions still insist on 50 or more observations. In the case of the SDG data, the sample size is less than 20 points. The FBProphet time series forecasting tool was used

in (Alharbi et al., 2019) for the purpose of SDG attainment prediction where it was demonstrated that FBProphet produced a better prediction accuracy over two alternatives, ARMA and ARIMA. FBProphet decompose a time series y into three parts, trend (g), seasonality (s) and holiday (h), plus an error term ϵ , as shown in Equation 1.

$$y = g + s + h + \epsilon \quad (1)$$

FBProphet is a uni-variate predictor; given that the focus of this paper is prediction using sets of causal-related time series a multi-variate approach is required. A multivariate time series forecasting model, using Long Short Term Memory (LSTM) networks, was presented in (Jason, 2018). The LSTM model demonstrated a better overall performance compared to two alternatives, namely ARMA and ARIMA (De Gooijer and Hyndman, 2006). The LSTM model was adopted in (Alharbi et al., 2020) for multi-variate SDG attainment forecasting. More generally, LSTM models have been widely adopted with respect to many real-life applications such as weather (Qing and Niu,) and stock market (Chen et al., 2015) prediction. With respect to the work presented in this paper an Encoder-Decoder LSTM, was used (Jason, 2018). LSTM typically performs better when large data sets are used. But also seems to perform well when a large number of short time series are used in a multi-variate setting.

2.2 Time series causal inference

Causal inference is concerned with the process of establishing a connection (or the lack of a connection) between events or instances. Given two candidate time series, $A = \{a_1, a_s, \dots, a_n\}$ and $B = \{b_1, b_2, \dots, b_m\}$, where wish to establish that B is causality-related to A , this is typically established using a prediction mechanism that uses the “lag” $\{b_1, \dots, b_{m-1}\}$ to predict a_n . We then compare the predicted value for a_n with the known value, for example using the Root Mean Square Error (RMSE) measure. If the two values are close then that “time series A is causality-related to time series B ”.

There are a number of mechanisms that can be adopted to achieves the above. With respect to the work presented in this paper six such mechanisms are considered for evaluation purposes: (i) Granger Causality (GC), (ii) the Temporal Causal Discovery Framework (TCDF), (iii) Pearson coefficient, (iv) Lasso, (v) the Mann-Whitney U Test. and (vi) ACA. Each is considered in further detail below.

2.2.1 Granger Causality

Granger Causality (GC) is one of the most widely used causal inference mechanisms found in the literature (Narayan and Smyth, 2009; Dörge et al., 2018).

It was introduced in the 60s and is calculated as shown in Equation 2 where: (i) X and Y are time series, (ii) a and b are the lags of X and Y , (iii) t is the current time step and (iv) e is a residual error. The idea is that if time series X “granger cause” time series Y , then the past values of X should contain helpful information to forecast X in a manner that would be better than when forecasting X without historical data. The variation of GC that was used with respect to the research presented in this paper is Stats-models variation (Seabold and Perktold, 2010). GC has been used previously in the context of SDG prediction, for example in (Dörge et al., 2018) 20,000 pairs of time series that featured causal relationship were found.

$$Xt = a_1X_{t-1} + b_1Y_{t-1} + e \quad (2)$$

2.2.2 Temporal Causal Discovery Framework

The Temporal Causal Discovery Framework (TCDF) (Nauta et al.,) is an alternative mechanism to determine whether a time series A has a caused association with a time series B . TCDF uses a Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) whose internal parameters are interpreted to discover causal relations. The framework has been shown to not work well with respect to short time series (for best performance it is suggested that 1000 data points are required, but is still used for evaluation purposes in this paper.

2.2.3 Pearson Correlation

Pearson Correlation (Frey, 2018) has been used to measure the correlations between any given pair of time series. The mechanism assumes linearity of the data. This assumptions holds with respect to many SDG time series that are typically linearly spaced,

2.2.4 Lasso

Lasso (Tibshirani, 1996) is an L1 regularisation technique frequently used to reduce high dimensionality data, which can also be employed to establish the existence of a causality between variable (Epprecht et al., 2013; Tibshirani, 1996). LASSO reduces the dimensionality of the input data set by penalising variances to zero, thus allowing irrelevant variables to be removed. Equation 3 shows the LASSO cost function. Inspection of the equation indicates that the first part is the *squared error* function, whilst the second part is a penalty applied to the regression slope. If λ is equal to 0, then the function becomes a normal regression. However, if λ is not 0 coefficients are penalised accordingly, leaving only coefficients that can explain the variance in the data.

$$LCF = \sum_{i=1}^n \left(y_i - \sum_j x_{ij}\beta_j \right)^2 + \lambda \sum_{j=1}^p |\beta_j| \quad (3)$$

2.2.5 Mann-Whitney U Test

The Mann-Whitney U Test (Alam and Rudin, 2015) is the fifth causal inference mechanism used in this paper. The test is used to determine if any two pairs of time series are statistically different. It is a non-parametric test (unlike, for example, Lasso).

2.2.6 ACA

The last of the six causality discovery mechanisms considered in this paper is the ACA mechanism proposed in (Alharbi et al., 2020); the name is derived from the author’s initials. Essentially this is an ensemble of the above five mechanisms which was found to outperform the above mechanisms when used individually.

2.3 Sustainable Development Goals Forecasting

Previous work directed at the forecasting of SDG attainment can be divided into two main categories: (i) single target forecasting or (ii) multiple target forecasting. The first is directed at forecasting with respect to an individual SDG or specific geographical location. Much existing work falls into this category. Examples can be found in (T et al., 2020) and (R González et al., 2019) where forecasting was directed at a specific region (Ukraine) or a specific SDG (electricity supply) respectively. A further example of the second category can be found in the context of The International Future Scenarios¹ framework. The second is concerned with predicting multiple targets. Example of this second approach include the SDG-AP and SDG-CAP frameworks (Alharbi et al., 2019; Alharbi et al., 2020) included to in the introduction to this paper.

3 The United Nations’ Sustainable Development Goal Agenda

The SDGs are the successor of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) (United Nations, 2015) agreed by world leaders in 2000 to be fulfilled by 2015 . The goals were directed at a number of basic indicators of global well being, such as: education, health and equality. Each MDG comprised a number of targets, for example Target 1A for MDG 1 was “Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than \$1.25 a day”. This particular target was met five years ahead of schedule (United Nations, 2015), as were a number of other targets. In 2015 a second phase, what is now called the SDG phase, was initiated (UN, 2559), but this time the goals were more ambitious. Again each SDG has a

¹<https://pardee.du.edu/>

number of targets associated with it. In total, there are 169 different targets concerning many different domains. The UN uploads, on a regular basis, statistics concerning SDG attainment to the SDG web site², from where this data can be viewed and/or downloaded. The October 2019 version of the data comprises 1,105,000 rows and 38 columns describing information concerning SDG attainment over 312 different geographical entities (regions and countries).

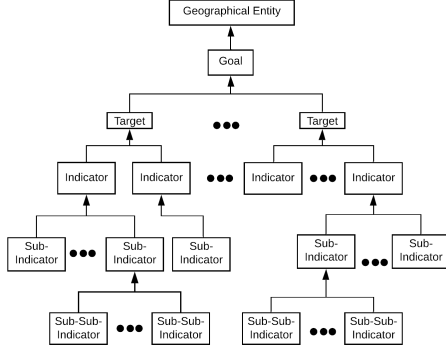


Figure 1: The hierarchical nature (taxonomy) of SDG data

The nature of the SDG data associated with an individual geographic entity can be conceptualised in the form of a hierarchy as shown in Figure 1 as first proposed in (Alharbi et al., 2019), and later adopted in (Alharbi et al., 2020). The hierarchy describes both a taxonomy for the SDG data and an operational framework. Inspection of the figure indicates that each goal comprises a set of targets, which in turn are dependent on a set of indicators, sub-indicators, and even sub-sub-indicators. Sub-sub indicators contribute to sub-indicators, sub-indicators to indicators and so on to the root of the tree. Not every indicator is relevant to every geographic entity, for example forestation has little applicability in Saudi Arabia.

Unlike other hierarchical data formats, such as financial indexes or tourism data (Athanasopoulos et al., 2009), where data exists in multiple levels and is interpreted in a top-down manner, the SDG hierarchy in Figure 1 is interpreted in a bottom-up manner. Starting from the leaf nodes, a boolean value is generated and passed up the tree. At the leaf nodes this is generated using a function $f(v)$ where v is a value generated using a prediction model which is compared to a threshold σ as shown in Equation 4. For the intermediate nodes the boolean values are generated using a simple “logical and” operation according to the input from the immediate child nodes. The predictor used in (Alharbi et al., 2019) were univariate time series predictors (FBProphet was advocated), those used in (Alharbi et al., 2020) were multi-

²<https://unstats.un.org/SDGs/indicators/database/>

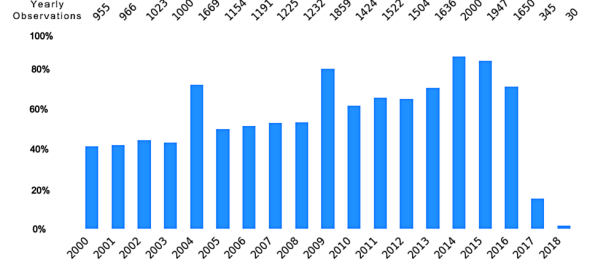


Figure 2: Missing values in UN North Africa region per year from 2000 to 2018

variate LSTMs, the number of dimensions depended on the number of causality relationships that were identified with respect to each leaf node, if no relationships were found with respect to a given indicator the multi-variate prediction reduced to a uni-variate prediction. A broadly similar approach is proposed with respect to the SDG-TTF methodology presented in this paper.

$$f(v) = \begin{cases} \text{true} & \text{if } v > \sigma \\ \text{false} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

The data held at the leaf nodes of the tree given in Figure 1, regardless of whether these nodes represent indicators, sub-indicators or sub-sub-indicators, is in the form of a series of time stamped values; in other words each leaf node holds a time series. The maximum number of points, as of October 2019, in any one time series is 20. However, there are many missing values, especially for 2018 and 2019 which means that, in effect, there are no more than 18 values typically available. Figure 2 shows the number of missing values per year for the geographic region “North Africa” (the year 2019 has been omitted). From the figure it can be observed that there are large numbers of missing values for 2017 and 2018. The reason for missing values varies, from Missing Completely at Random (MCAR) to Missing Not at Random, (MNAR) (Heitjan and Basu, 1996). An example of the first can be found for the geographic region “Egypt” and Indicator 1.2.1 (Goal 1, Target 2, Indicator 1), “Proportion of population living below the national poverty line(per cent)”, where only data for the random years 2003, 2007 2009 is available. An example of the second, again for geographic region “Egypt”, can be found for the Indicator 15.2.1, “By 2020, promote the implementation of sustainable management of all types of forests, halt deforestation, restore degraded forests and substantially increase afforestation and reforestation globally” where data is collected on a five year cycle; in other words there are regular 5 year gaps between recorded data items.

In addition to the length of the time series, further challenges include: (i) the wide verity of different scales and data types used in the time series, (ii) the

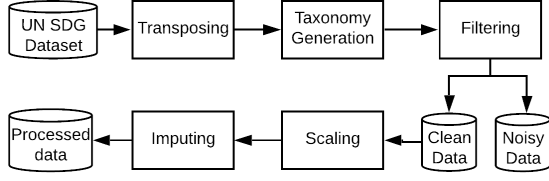


Figure 3: An overview of the SDG-TTF data pre-processing workflow

variability in the nature of the time series and (iii) the nature of the σ threshold at the individual leaf nodes. The first can best be illustrated by an example. If we consider Indicators 1.5.2, “Direct agricultural loss attributed to disaster (millions of current United States dollars)”, and Indicators 7.1.1, “Proportion of population with access to electricity, by urban/rural (percentage)”, the first is reported in millions of US dollars whilst the second is reported as a percentage. The second challenge can be illustrated by observing that some time series remain at zero with only occasional peaks, for example in the case Indicator 1.5.2 (“disasters” do not happen every year); whilst other time series increase steadily year on year, for example with respect to Indicator 7.1.1 “proportion of population with access to electricity”. The threshold issue requires particular consideration, not all SDG indicators specify a threshold, as can be seen by contrasting Indicators 1.5.2 and 7.1.1; Indicator 1.5.2 does not reference a threshold. The solution is beyond the scope of this paper, hence the thresholds used in (Alharbi et al., 2019) were adopted.

4 SDG Data Preprocessing

Given the foregoing the SDG data requires considerable preprocessing. Figure 3 presents an overview of the preprocessing required prior to the application of the proposed SDG-TTF system. It should be noted here that this preprocessing only needs to be done once, or at last only once for each update of the SDG data. From the figure the preprocessing is conducted in five steps: (i) transposing, (ii) taxonomy generation, (iii) filtering, (iv) scaling, (v) Imputing. The preprocessing commences with the transposing of the raw 19×38 row-column format (for each leaf node) to a 1×24 row-column format (for each leaf node):

$$\langle \text{GR}, \text{G}, \text{T}, \text{D}, t_0, \dots, t_{19} \rangle \quad (5)$$

The data is then filtered based on the number missing values. Any time series with more than 15 missing values or featuring irregularities such as the presence of five zeros in a row, is deemed to be noisy data and is put to one side in a set $T_{\text{noise}} = \{T_1, T_2, \dots\}$. The rest of the data will then be scaled using RobustScaler (Pedregosa, 2011), and then any missing values will be imputed using Spline (Pedregosa, 2011). In practice,

as illustrated in Figure 2, we have found it appropriate to use data from 2000 to 2017 inclusive because of the large number of missing values for 2018 and 2019. The final output is a set $\mathbf{T} = \{T_1, T_2, \dots\}$.

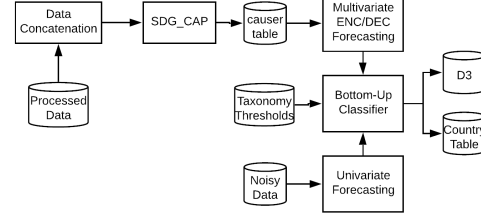


Figure 4: Overview of the SDG-TTF workflow

5 The SDG Track, Trace and Forecast (SDG-TTF) Model

This section presents the proposed SDG-TTF framework. The workflow for the framework is presented in Figure 4. The input is the set of time series, $\mathbf{T} = \{T_1, T_2, \dots\}$, from the previous pre-processing stage as described above. From the figure it can be seen that the SDG-TTF framework comprises five processes: (i) Data Grouping (ii) Relation Discovery, (iii) multivariate ENC/DEC Forecasting, (iv) univariate forecasting and (v) bottom-up classification. Note that two forecasting processes, Multivariate ENC/DEC and univariate, feed into the bottom up classification.

During the data grouping process \mathbf{T} is grouped into geographic regions. Recall that the objective of this paper is to improve on current SDG prediction effectiveness by taking into consideration causalities between countries and their neighbours, something not considered in previous work. The data grouping was conducted using geographic area codes based on the UN regional segmentation³. For example, the seven countries Algeria, Egypt, Libya, Morocco, Sudan, Tunisia and Western Sahara were grouped into the UN sub region of North Africa. Any other grouping mechanism would be equally applicable.

The next process is to determine the relationship between the time series in \mathbf{T} . Each $T_i \in \mathbf{T}$ is compared to its complement T'_i ($T'_i = \{x \in \mathbf{T} : x \neq T_i\}$). The interaction between each time series is measured using a causality ranking measure r . This is calculated, using RMSE, as described in Sub-section 2.2. For the evaluation presented in this paper the six time series causality mechanisms listed in Section 2 were used (Lasso, R^2 , Pearson Correlation, Mann-Whitney U Test, Granger and ACA). For each T_i , the time series in T'_i were then ranked according to r and the top k selected for further processing, the set of time series T'_{ik} .

³<https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/report/2019/regional-groups/>

For the evaluation presented later in this paper $k = 50$ was used. Each T_i and T'_{ik} was then stored in a “causer table”, $T_{causer} = \{\tau_1, \tau_2, \dots\}$, where $\tau_i = T_i \cup T'_{ik}$.

For each $\tau_i \in T_{causer}$ the next process in the workflow shown Figure 4 was to build a multi-variate time series forecasting model. A range of tools and techniques are available whereby such a model can be constructed. However, for the evaluation presented later in this paper a multi-variate LSTM-Encoder-Decoder (Enc-Dec) (Jason, 2018) was used. Recall, from the previous section, that during data preprocessing time series which were deemed unusable with respect to the determination of causality relationships were set aside in a noise set $T_{noise} = \{T_1, T_2, \dots\}$. However, although unsuited to causality relationship determination this data can still be used for the purpose of forecasting SDG attainment. For each time series $T_i \in T_{noise}$ a uni-variate time series forecasting model was built. Again there are a number of tools and techniques available whereby such a model can be constructed. For the evaluation presented in the following section uni-variate FBProphet was used.

The final process in the SDG-TTF workflow is the classification process where we ascertain whether a given country will meet its SDG goals or not using the generated multi-variate and uni-variate time series forecasting models described above. The fundamental process is similar to that presented in (Alharbi et al., 2019) where an alternative SDG attainment prediction framework was presented (the SDG-CAP framework), which in turn was founded on the same hierarchical topology described in (Alharbi et al., 2020) and described in Section 3. The results are stored in a “country table” and can be visualised using D3.js (Bostock et al., 2011). An example of the latter is given and discussed in Section 7 (Figure 5).

6 Evaluation

The evaluation of the proposed SDG-TTF model is presented in this section. For the evaluation the UN North Africa sub-region was considered. This comprised a total of 3667 time series (leaf nodes in the topology), covering the 17 SDGs with respect to the North Africa sub-region of which 2325 were placed in **T** and the remainder in T_{noise} . The substantial number of time series allocated to T_{noise} was due to the large number of missing values that featured in the North Africa sub region SDG data (see Figure 2). The objectives of the evaluation were:

1. To determine the most appropriate causality discovery mechanism for use with SDG-TTF
2. To determine whether by taking into consideration both intra-region and inter-region causality

relationships better SDG predictions could be produced.

For the evaluation the input data was divided into 14 observations for training and 4 observations for testing; $k = 50$ was used through out. All experiments were run on a windows 10 machine running under Ryzen 9 CPU, RTX 2060 GPU, 16 GB of RAM and 1TB SSD. Comparisons were made with the SDG-AP and SDG-CAP prediction frameworks presented in (Alharbi et al., 2019) and (Alharbi et al., 2020) respectively. All algorithms were implemented using the Python programming language. The evaluation metric used was RMSE (Root Mean Squared Error). As noted earlier, six different causality discovery mechanisms were considered: Lasso, R^2 , Pearson Correlation, Mann-Whitney U Test, Granger and ACA.

Detail of the results obtained are given in Table 1 and 2 for Algeria and 12 selected SDGs. The Table gives the RMSE error for each SDG when the last four points are predicted with respect to each time series; best results are highlighted in bold font. The overall average RMSE value is given at the bottom of the table, for each approach considered, together with the associated standard deviation. The first two columns in the table give the sequential time series ID number (to support ease of reading) and the unique descriptor, which, as noted earlier, allows it to be related back to a specific SDG indicator, sub-indicator or sub-sub-indicator. The following six columns give the RMSE values using SDG-TTF combined with the six causality mechanisms considered. It can be seen that ACA, the hybrid causal relationship discovery approach suggested in (Alharbi et al., 2020), produced the best overall result. The seventh column in the table gives the RMSE value using the SDG-CAP SDG attainment prediction framework proposed in (Alharbi et al., 2020), coupled with ACA to give best results. Recall that using SDG-CAP only intra-entity (single country) causal relationships were considered, as opposed inter-entity causal relationships as in the case of SDG-TTF. From the table it can be seen from the recorded average RMSE results that the proposed SDG-TTF framework out-performed SDG-CAP. The final two columns give the result with respect to SDG-AP (Alharbi et al., 2019). Recall that SDG-AP does not feature any consideration of the possibility of causality relationships. Predictions are made using a single time series, uni-variate, approach. For SDG-AP two prediction models were considered LSTM and FBProphet. From Table 1 it can be seen, from the recorded average RMSE results, that SDG-TTF out-performed SDG-AP and SDG-CAP.

Table 2 represent a summary of the results obtained from the entire North Africa. Overall it can

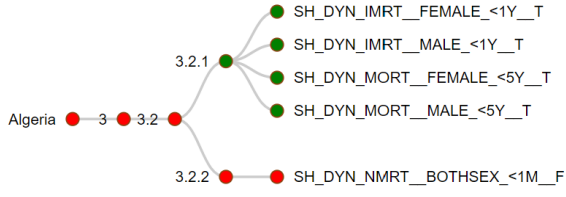


Figure 5: Vitalising SDG attainment using D3.js

be concluded that consideration of inter-entity causal relationships, as well as intra-entity causal relationships, as incorporated into the SDG-TTF framework results in improved SDG attainment prediction; and that the most appropriate causality discovery mechanism was the ACA mechanism.

7 System Operation

The operation of the proposed SDG-TTF framework was investigated using a number of casestudies. One such case study is presented here. Namely, SDG 3, Target 2 (Target 3.2): “By 2030, end preventable deaths of newborns and children under five years of age, with all countries aiming to reduce neonatal mortality to at least as low as 12 per 1000 live births and under-5 mortality to at least as low as 25 per 1000 live births”, and the country Algeria. Target 3.2 comprises two indicators (3.2.1 and 3.2.2), each comprised of 4 and 1 sub-indicators respectively. Note that there are two threshold here, ≤ 12 for live births (interpreted as aged less than 1 month old) and ≤ 25 for under five years old.

SDG-TTF was then used to make predictions up to the year 2030. The generated output is a “country table”, as indicated in the workflow presented in Figure 4. A fragment of this table for Target 3.2 is given in Table 3. The first four columns give details of each sub-sub-indicator. The fifth column gives the threshold for each indicator. The sixth and seventh columns, “Initial Value” and “Prediction”, gives the mortality value per 1000 live births in 2015, and the predicted value in 2030. The final SDG attainment prediction result is given in the last column. For Target 3.2 to be attained (met), the value associated with each indicator (time series) must meet its threshold (at or below the relevant threshold in this case). Unfortunately, in this example, all of the indicators meet the required threshold before 2030 except 3.2.2. Thus it is concluded that Target 3.2 will not be attained.

The SDG-TTF framework includes a visualisation mechanism, as indicated in Figure 4. This was implemented using D3.js (Bostock et al., 2011). The visualisation allows users to: (i) track the progress of different goals over a given time frame, and (ii) trace the achievement of individual bottom level indicators in an interactive manner. An example of such visualisations is given in Figure 5 using the case study pre-

sented above. From the figure it can be seen that using the visualisation it is easy to identify goal attainment (or non-attainment as in this case). Nodes coloured in green highlight indicators/targets/goals that will be attained on time. Nodes coloured in red highlight indicators/targets/goals that will not be attained on time. For a more detailed analysis of why a goal is not attaining the relevant country table can give a better explanation.

8 Conclusion

In this paper we have presented the SDG-TTF attainment prediction framework. Unlike previous frameworks directed at SDG attainment prediction the SDG-TTF framework takes into consideration both inter- and intra-geographic entity (county, region) causal correlation. The intuition was that individual SDG indicators should not be considered in isolation because inspection of the indicators demonstrates clear potential for causal relationships with respect to other indicators for the entity in question and with respect to indicators in neighbouring entities. The evaluation of the framework demonstrates that more robust SDG attainment predictions using SDF-TTF can be made. For future work the authors intend to investigate further alternative causal relationship discovery mechanisms; and to give further consideration of the parameter k , the number of time series to be included when building the multi-variate time series prediction models central to the SDG-TTF framework. Finally the authors intend to use the framework to investigate the effect on SDG attainment in presence of natural disasters, such as the Covid-19 pandemic, which occur for short periods of time but might have a significant impact on SDG attainment prediction.

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Time Series Code		SDG-TTF					SDG-CAP		SDG-AP	
		Lasso	R ²	Pearson correlation	T.test	Granger Causality	ACA	ACA	Univariate LSTM	FBProphet
1	SH.DTH.RNCOM.M.DIA	0.089	0.096	0.150	0.133	0.079	0.106	0.252	34.039	NaN
2	SH.DYN.NMRTN.MF	0.166	0.166	0.143	0.109	0.151	0.169	0.102	290.937	5.346
3	SH.DTH.NCOM.F	0.056	0.665	0.044	0.027	0.045	0.093	0.072	0.196	NaN
4	SH.DTH.NCOM.M	0.032	0.048	0.062	0.077	0.080	0.050	0.058	0.398	NaN
5	SH.STA.POISN.F	0.095	0.110	0.097	0.099	0.170	0.082	0.152	0.010	0.009
6	SH.STA.POISN.M	0.337	0.237	0.325	0.391	0.296	0.235	0.141	0.041	0.038
7	DC.TOF.HLTHL	0.196	0.107	0.103	0.107	0.105	0.094	0.283	10.664	NaN
8	SH.STA.SCIDEN.F	0.094	0.088	0.118	0.080	0.079	0.066	0.117	6.599	NaN
9	SH.STA.SCIDEN.M	0.067	0.894	0.416	0.190	0.086	0.087	0.071	0.094	0.044
10	SH.STA.SCIDE.MF	0.057	0.110	0.079	0.052	0.070	0.109	0.218	0.098	0.035
11	SH.STA.SCIDE.F	0.070	0.102	0.103	0.091	0.084	0.135	0.580	0.078	NaN
12	SH.DYN.MORTN.MF	0.283	0.268	0.295	0.185	0.250	0.257	0.110	355.882	217.944
Average		0.129	0.241	0.161	0.128	0.125	0.124	0.180	58.253	37.236
Standard Deviation		0.093	0.253	0.113	0.091	0.075	0.062	0.139	119.684	80.838

Table 1: A sample of RMSE values for selected SDG indicators for Algeria

Country	SDG-TTF (ACA)		SDG-CAP (ACA)		SDG-AP (FBProphet)	
RMSE	AVG	SD	AVG	SD	AVG	SD
Algeria	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.9	0.8	7.6
Egypt	0.4	1.4	0.5	2.0	0.6	3.1
Libya	0.8	1.1	0.9	1.0	0.6	0.8
Morocco	0.6	0.3	0.5	1.4	0.6	1.3
Sudan	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4
Tunisia	0.4	0.8	0.5	1.1	0.7	1.8
Western Sahara	0.5	0.3	0.6	0.5	0.8	0.5
Average	0.4	0.7	0.5	1.0	0.6	2.2

Table 2: Total Averages for North Africa per country

Indicator	Age/Sex	Initial	Target	Forecast	Result
3.2.1	1Y/F	20.2	<=25	16.94	Met
3.2.1	1Y/M	22.9	<=25	20.82	Met
3.2.1	5Y/F	23.7	<=25	19.89	Met
3.2.1	5Y/F	26.6	<=25	24.13	Met
3.2.2	1Month/FM	15	<=12	13.75	Not Met

Table 3: Forecast results for Target 3.2, the year 2030 and the country Algeria

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